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ABSTRACT

This paper explores certain dilemmas in the professional preparation of school administrators, particularly in developing nations. The paper begins by reviewing the issue of specialist preparation and development for educational administrators, examining arguments for and against specialist training. A discussion of the extent of Canada's commitment to professional training for educational administrators provides a context in which to describe a framework developed in Manitoba for planning the preservice and continuing development of administrators. This framework hinges on the establishment of a strong link between the purposes of and the delivery methods for professional training. The framework assumes the existence of a continuum of skills important to administrators, the need to assess an administrator's progress along the continuum, and the need to develop preservice and inservice programs that take both the skills to be taught and the skills already learned into account. Although preservice programs should probably focus on basic "survival" skills and inservice programs on skills for handling problems developing in practice, the traditional content of such programs is usually the reverse, as a discussion of Manitoba's system illustrates. The paper concludes by applying these observations to the unique situation found in the Caribbean. (PGD)

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THE DELIVERY OF PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS: THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

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INTRODUCTION

This symposium is witness to a growing interest in the professional development and preparation of educational managers. Previous activities in the Caribbean like the 1982 Jamaica workshop[1] and the 1978 Commonwealth Secretariat Workshop[2] attest to the fact that this interest is not spontaneous or particulary new. Similarly in Canada, we have had graduate programs in educational administration, summer workshops, and research projects on the topic for over 20 years. However, if I was to examine the "state of the art" of the preparation and professional development of administrators in Canada, I would not be impressed with our progress. Our graduate programs are under fire from practicing administrators for their lack of relevance. In Manitoba, we have estimated that less than 20% of the school level administrators have availed themselves of university coursework in school administration.[3] Summer workshops and divisional inservice sessions get a more positive reaction from practitioners but are presented in no organized fashion, the substance and delivery of such sessions dependent upon one or two "committee" meetings to decide "what will we do this year?" Finally, our researchers in professional development and preparation of school administrators are drowning in a sea of needs analyses.

WHY SPECIALIST TRAINING?

The purpose of the present paper is to suggest some directions that might be taken to address present dilemmas in the professional preparation and development of school administrators, especially those in developing areas. Before doing so, however, it may be appropriate to briefly discuss the issue of specialist preparation and development for educational administrators.

It has not always been the case that such specialist training has been seen as necessary for school administrators. Although most countries in the democratic world are moving towards what is termed the specialist professional model for the training and selection of school administrators,[4] arguments have been made that there are considerable negative effects to credentialism of any form, including specialist training for professional groups such as teachers and school administrators.[5] Specific criticisms of specialist credentials for school administrators include the following: (1) Administrators; (2) Requirements become a restriction on local autonomy to select and hire school administrators; (3) Most requirements are irrelevant to the individual's ability to perform the job of school administrator; (4) Administrative groups promote the training process on their own, not the public's interest.[6] Furthermore, some authors writing about the American

experience with administrator certification have noted that there are apparently no demonstrable relationships between specialist credentials for educational administrators and their records of success in schools.[7] Given the possible negative consequence of administrator credentialism, ranging from the contention that in general it is harmful to society, to concerns more specific to administrator training, decisions to implement specialist training policies should not be taken lightly.

In spite of these criticisms, there may also be a number of pragmatic reasons for (re)considering the issues of specialist training for school administrators.

First, is the recognition that there are unique competencies required to effectively carry out these duties of school administration. This implies that attainment of these unique competencies would indicate appropriateness for selection to the job of school administration. This suggests that success as a teacher, or political affiliation alone is not enough to ensure success as a school administrator. Although both of these "qualifications" (depending upon context) may be good places to start, opportunities must be available for prospective or present school administrators to develop the unique competencies of their administrative positions. Furthermore, there is growing awareness that "generic" professional preparation in administration is not sufficient, but rather that specific or "specialist professional" preparation for school administration is important.[8]

Second, recent years have witnessed changing conceptions of the practice of school administration. Recent developments such as changing social norms, erosion of some of the traditional authority of the school administrator, changes in education generally, changes in required knowledge base, and changes in teachers are amongst the factors promoting a changing conception of the school administrator.[9] This changing conception has induced the consideration of new roles for school administrators, roles that existing training programs do not address.

Third, research on school effects has demonstrated more clearly than ever before that school administrators do make a difference in school outcomes. A profile of the characteristics of school administrators who lead productive schools is now emerging.[10] There is now evidence of leadership impact on variables such as curriculum implementation and student outcome that supports the notion that where school administrators exercise leadership in program improvement then the impact is considerable.[11]

Fourth, many of the criticisms directed at specialist credentials for school administrators have more to do with the process of obtaining the credentials than with the concept of specialist preparation for school administrators. That is, criticisms have their source in the substance of preparation and development programs and the system effects of this substance rather than in the notion that school administrators should receive specialist preparation and development. To reject the specialist professional model on the basis of its implementation rather than its conceptual validity is like throwing out the tub with the water. A basic assumption of this paper is that the specialist professional model is valid, but that the manner in which it is being implemented in many locations has given rise to justified criticisms which have pointed out the deleterious effects of specialist administrator credentialism.

THE STATE OF THE ART

It is this author's opinion that there is a need for an increased professional identity for school administrators. But, this identity is slow in developing. Although there appears to be a movement towards recognizing the appropriateness of the specialist model, many existing approaches to professional preparation and development have not totally reflected this recognition. For instance, only 3 provinces out of the 10 in Canada require, by regulation, that school administrators take some form of preservice training and none require an upgrading program of any kind.[12] Essentially the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators in Canada could be characterized as follows:

(1) University coursework, or university based programs are becoming the major, often only, source of preservice training.

(2) There is a growing disatisfaction with the place of the university in offering preservice training.

(3) Inservices for educational administrators are frequent, but unplanned and unco-ordinated.

(4) Existing training or professional development focuses primarily upon school level administrators. Almost nothing exists for district or division level administrators.

(5) There is little emphasis upon the concept of lifelong learning or continual professional development.

(6) There appears little linkage between inservice and preservice for educational administrators.

The improvement of the "state" in Canada requires the rethinking of our methods of delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators. This requires a closer linkage between purpose and method. That is, it requires a closer link between the reasons we choose to take the risks associated with providing pre and inservice speciality training, and the methods we choose to deliver this training.

In the balance of the paper, a framework is presented that was developed in Manitoba, Canada, to guide decisions regarding the preservice and continuing development of school administrators. The need for an action framework grew out of dissatisfaction with the ability of the present state of the provisions of training for school administrators to serve the needs of the "changing conception." The framework assumed as an operating principle the need for a stronger purpose-delivery link.

THE DELIVERY OF SPECIALIST TRAINING FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

As was discussed in the previous section, a commitment to a specialist model in the preparation and development of school administrators carries with it other system obligations and effects. Agreeing on the need for specialist training could be the easiest of decisions. Developing the substance of a specialist training program has posed much more difficulty for most locations. This substance consists primarily of two issues: (1) the focus of the training program, or the skills toward which the program will be directed, and (2) the appropriate sources for these skills.

Skills for School Administration

There is no shortage of lists of suggested skills, skill areas and competencies for school administration. Most of these skill lists are grouped into areas of concern such as leadership, planning, curriculum development. A number of such skill lists have been developed in every province in Canada.[13] The present author has worked at developing such a skill list in one province, and like the participants at the 1982 Jamaica Symposium, in Manitoba we have tried to determine and suggest which skill area is most important. The Jamaica participants, for example, proposed that competencies in the area of planning, programming and evaluation and personnel management were priority competency areas.[14] Our work in Manitoba identified topics related to personnel management as most important.[15]

All of these lists and skill areas are quite comprehensive and, in general, could be assumed to represent the areas of skills required of school administrators. However, as a planner of pre and inservice programs for school administrators, this writer found these lists, including the ones he generated himself, of little assistance. This is not to argue that all of the skills identified by, for instance, the Jamaica participants are not desirable and should not be pursued to maximize effectiveness. It is to suggest, however, that there is a big step between lists of skills and skill areas and planning programs to develop these skills. This additional step could be found in realistic conceptualization of (a) the job of school administration and (b) the purposes of pre and inservice.

The Concept of a Growth Continuum

One view of the job suggests that there are at least two distinct groups of requisite skills for school administration; those that reflect the technical, managerial aspects of the day-to-day activities of school administrators and those that reflect higher order analytic, problem-solving and decision-making skills. March's characterization of school administration as a "bus schedule with footnotes by Kiergekard" comes to mind here.[16] Other authors have suggested that there could be a

consideration of three fields of expertise for effective administration: (1) technical skills, (2) human relation skills and (3) conceptual analytic skills.[17]

Based upon recent research in Canada, Liethwood and Montgomery identified four role characterizations for principals; the administrator, the humanitarian, the program manager,and the systematic problem solver.[18] Their four role characterizations are very similar to the three fields of expertise identified above. However, they went further than most conceptualizations of roles by proposing that these roles identify variations in effectiveness on selected dimensions of principal behavior, with "the administrator" being the least effective role and the "systematic problem solver" being the most effective. They based their "principal profile" on the assumption that (i) little of the existing research or school administration has looked at variations of principal behavior and its effects (ii) principals' effectiveness is determined by the extent that they facilitate teacher growth and thereby indirectly influence student learning, and (iii) growth in the behavior of school principals can occur, but requires systematic intervention.

It is this last assumption, the proposing of a growth model for school administrators, that is of most relevance to the present paper. Where extensive lists of administrator skills have been at limited use to planners of inservice and preservice programs is the absence of a hierachy of requisite skills and abilities required for varying degrees of effective administration. Regardless of how effectiveness might be defined (Liethwood and Montgomery defined effectiveness in terms of planned change, others rely more heavily on recent school effectiveness research) planners need to be able to (i) assess the stage of growth of school administrators along some path to maximizing effectiveness, and (ii) assign appropriate responsibilities in the development of particular skills along the path.

For instance, one view of reality could be that mastering of the technical-managerial level skills is most important to beginning administrators and that the pursuit of higher order conceptual skills, though of concern, can be put aside until lower level skills are mastered. That is, from casual observation, this writer would suggest that there are many school administrators who are "surviving" on the job but who have not developed (or do not exhibit) higher order "conceptual-analytic" skills. Conversely, it would be difficult to envision school administrators surviving on their "conceptual-analytic" skills if they have not mastered the skills required for operational maintenance. Consequently a hierarchy of skills could be prepared that represents a concern for appropriate timing in the development of these skills for school administrators.

Beginning administrators have different skill needs from practicing administrators and practicing administrators who are effective have different skill needs from administrators who are not effective. As trite as this observation sounds, there is little evidence that planners of training sessions pay heed to this simple maxim of combining purpose with intended audience. For instance, planners for "training sessions" often discuss the priorizing of topics/areas such as leadership, evaluation, planning and so on. More appropriate discussions might focus, for example, upon the question of what planning skills are required by administrators at both different career stages and different effectiveness levels.

For instance, Liethwood and Montgomery[19] identified decision making as a critical dimension of behavior for the school administrator, but also identified the decision making characteristics of the administrator at four growth levels:

Level 4 - skilled in use of multiple forms; matches form to setting and works toward high levels of participation
- decision processes oriented toward goals of education, based on information from personal, prof. & research sources
- anticipates, initiates and monitors decision processes

Level 3 - skilled in use of several forms: selects form based on urgency and desire to involve staff decision processes oriented toward school's program based on information from personal and professional sources
- anticipates most decisions and monitors decision process regularly.

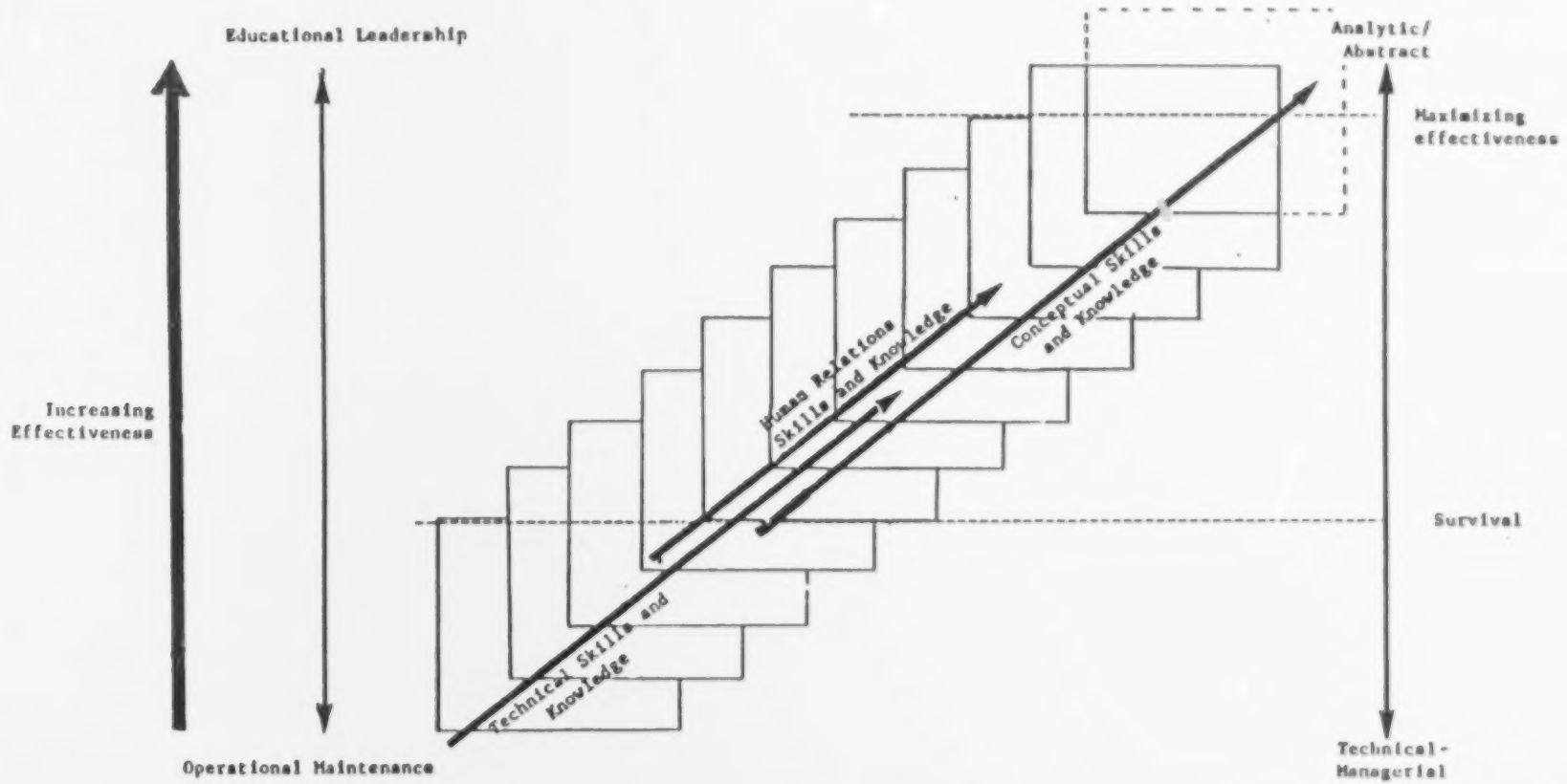
Level 2 - uses primarily participatory forms of decision-making based on a strong motivation to involve staff so they will be happy
- tends to proactive concerning decisions affecting school climate but largely reactive in all other areas unless required to act.

Level 1 - uses primarily autocratic forms of decision-making decision processes oriented toward smooth school admin. based on personal sources of information
- decision processes are reactive, inconsistent and rarely monitored.

Using both the notion of three groups of requisite skills for effective administration and the notion of a hierarchy of skills, a schematic or continuum of skill areas is presented in Figure 1. This schematic is based upon the following assumptions:

FIGURE 1

A Continuum of Administrator Skills[1]



[1] Specific skills not defined here - see 1982 Jamaica Workshop for Caribbean skill list.

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(1) Administrators come to the job or the training with basic pre-requisite human relations and conceptual skills and the continuum represents further development of these skills.

(2) Specific skill lists and core competencies such as those identified at the 1982 Jamaica meeting can be used to provide detail in these areas.

(3) A desirable state of affairs and hopefully the intention of any training policy is the pursuit of maximum effectiveness and consequently a high level of development in all skill areas.

However, the following observations or conclusions are more important in attempting to address the purpose-delivery dilemma.

Matching Purpose to Delivery: Preservice Vs Inservice

A first observation is that there is a clear expectation from those seeking pretraining for administration that such training will provide them with the skills required to survive on the job. Research indicates that up to 80% of a school administrators time is spent on what might be referred to as technical-managerial operations.[20] These include personnel management skills of a more technical nature. For example, in the area of teacher evaluation, although this skill area can be seen as both a technical function with a set of guidelines and procedures to guide discretionary decision making and as a higher order human relations taks, many school administrators begin their job with no instruction or experience in this area. One of the results of this in Canada is that teacher evaluation continues to be one of the most requested inservice topics and the requests are not for higher order analysis or conceptual activities but for exposure techniques that "work." There is a technical function in teacher evaluation that school administrators should learn before they assume a position or they may not survive on the job.

Preservice programs must prepare administrators for the reality of the day to day functioning in their jobs. On the continuum in Figure 1 this suggests that preservice programs focus on the technical-managerial and basic human relations aspect of the job. At the 1982 Jamaica meeting, workshops participants identified six core competency areas. The implication of a skill hierarchy is that the planners identify within each of these core competency areas those skills that are a minimum for survival

job of school administrators in their context. These skills should become the focus of preservice (and upgrading for presently non-effective administrators) programs.

A second observation is the expectation that once survival needs have been met by a preservice or upgrading program, the planners should focus on the development of higher order, conceptual, analytic skills. Once again, it should be recognized that all competency areas, such as the six core areas identified in Jamaica, require first the mastery of lower order skills to survive and secondly the pursuant of higher order skills to maximize effectiveness. It should also be recognized that although an administrator could be seen as reaching a point of survival, maximizing effectiveness or the development of higher order skills has no end point. A recognition of this promotes, of course, the idea of lifelong learning and continual professional development as a school administrator.

The notion of matching the nature of professional development activities to professsional and personal growth stages is not new. A basic premise of modern pedagogy has been to challenge students at their own level. Research on effective teaching has demonstrated that effective teachers provide direct or indirect activities based upon pupil's needs and current functioning, with the intent of moving the student to greater capacity without overstressing abilities.[21] We are quick to accept the concomittance of developmental level and pedagogical strategy for children, but slower to recognize a similar framework for the development of adults--in this case teachers and administrators.

Thirdly, although it can be seen how a certain core competency area such as supervision might have a certain technical component that requires mastery for suvival, how can "higher order" or "conceptual/analytic" be characterized in a way that provides meaning to planners of training programs that go past survival? Two different perspectives might help in this instance.

The first is Getzels' discussion of three levels of problem finding: presented problems, discovered problems and created problems.[22] In the presented problem situation, the problem exists, it is propounded to the problem solver, and it has a known formulation or known situation. In the discovered problem situation, the problem also exists but it is "discovered" or "envisaged" by the problem solver. It may or may not have a known solution. In the created "problem" the problem does not exist until someone creates it. The higher order skills that are referred to in the case of the skill continuum are those that surpass the presented and possibly the discovered problem.

A second way of conceptualizing both the skill continuum in general and the high order skills in particularly is the notion of adult cognitive development. There is growing interest in the application of theories of cognitive development to personnel development in educational settings. Essentially, cognitive development theory assumes:[23]

(1) All humans process experience through cognitive structures called stages--Piaget's concept of a schemata.

(2) Such cognitive structures are organized in a hierarchical sequence of stages from the less complex to the more complex.

(3) Growth occurs first within a particular stage and then only to the next stage in the sequence. This latter change is a qualitative shift--a major quantum leap to a significantly more complex system of processing experience.

(4) Growth is neither automatic nor unilateral but occurs only with appropriate interaction between the human and the environment.

(5) Behavior can be determined and predicted by an individual's particular stage of development. Predictions, however, are not exact.

Recent studies in the area of cognitive development have indicated that stages of psychological development (ego, moral, epistemological development) predicted successful functioning in the adult life. More administrators who scored at more complex levels on the epistemlogical development were perceived by their teachers as more flexible in problem solving, more responsive, less rigid and less authoritarian.[24] Again, in terms of the skill hierarchy presented here, increasing effectiveness, higner order skills, conceptual-analytic skills could be seen in the context of increasing cognitive development.

From the skill continuum and from these two examples, some specific purposes for pre and inservice training could be proposed. First, preservice should be directed towards the technical, operational maintenance functions of administrators' jobs that are required for survival. These administrators should be able to handle all manner of "presented problems" and be at a certain stage of cognitive development. Second, once "survival" has been assured, professional development programs should carry on to develop the skills for handling "discovered" and ultimately "created" problems and to promote continued cognitive (moral, ego, epistemological) development.

It still remains to be seen, however, from what source these skills might be attained.

SOURCES OF ADMINISTRATOR SKILLS

Planners in North America have had some difficulty in sorting out the responsibilities in the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators. There has, in fact, been considerably more effort put into the types of knowledge and skills required for administration than into thoughts regarding delivery of this knowledge.

There appears to be three broad sources of administrator skills and knowledge; (1) experience, (2) operating agencies (school district, ministry) programs and (3) university (undergraduate or graduate) courses. There are, of course, many examples of combinations of these sources where operating agencies use university people, and universities incorporate internships in their programs. Generally, however, (and this may be one of the problems) university programs for administrators are distinct from district or ministry activities and both rarely incorporate an experience component into their activities. Of concern here are the questions: What skill areas are addressed primarily by experience, what skill areas are addressed by operating agencies inservice and what skill areas are addressed by university based programs in educational administration?

Regarding agency (district, ministry) operated activities, there appears to be support for the notion that such activities be directed towards what have been referred to in this paper as the technical managerial aspects of the job.[25] Concerning university based coursework in educational administration, it would appear reasonable to conclude that the avowed focus of these programs is what has been referred to here as conceptual analytic skills.[26] Finally, it must be assumed that experience is a crucial source of skills no matter which skill areas are to be addressed. To provide a focus, however, it could be demonstrated that the development of skills in the human relations area is best pursued through the direct experience of dealing with people. Applying this logic to Figure 1 results in the following observations.

(1) The more technical or operational the skill required, the more appropriate becomes delivery by the local, operating (district, ministry) agency.

(2) The more analytic-abstract the skill required, the more appropriate becomes delivery by the university setting.

(3) Human relations and political skills are best attained through experience.

In North America, however, there appears to be some anomalies in this regard.

Although university graduate coursework in educational administration is focussed primarily upon the development of higher order conceptual skills, it is also usually the only formally available source of pre-service school administrator training. In the absence of formal operating agency preservice programs, universities are feeling some pressure to deal with at least the pragmatics of human relations concerns and to some degree with the technnical managerial areas. There are several problems here. Firstly, people are accepted into programs of study in education administration because of their academic skills, not their leadership or potential management skills. Secondly, most professors in educational administration do not see the university as providing students with the technical managerial skills for operational maintenance. Thirdly, even if professors of educational administration did see their role in this way, they themselves were not selected on the basis of their experience as school administrators or their knowledge of the technical skills, and consequently many are unqualified to deal with operational maintenance issues.

Consequently, there appears to be a certain role reversal in the source of school administration skills. Operating agency (school district, ministry) directed on-going professional development activities are usually offered after employment as a school administrator, but tend to address technical operational issues crucial to initial survival and operational maintenance. On the other hand, university graduate coursework is quickly becoming a preservice requirement, although university programs are primarily concerned with the development of higher order conceptual and analytic skills most appropriate (and desired) only after experience and only after mastery of the technical operational maintenance skills. Stated in terms of the framework presented earlier in this paper, although there is some recognition of the range of skills required for successful school administration, there appears little logic to the way in which professional preparation and professional development programs for school administrators address these skills.

A CANADIAN CASE STUDY

The purpose-delivery anomaly can be seen by an examination of the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators in one Canadian province.

Manitoba has a total population of approximately one million, a teacher population of approximately 12,000 and approximately 1,000 school administrators. The only form of pre-service education in administration available to these administrators is university graduate courses in educational administration. Inservice available includes these same graduate courses plus three to five days a year of locally initiated inservice. This time could include an annual two day Principals' Association conference. In addition, since 1980, a two week summer

leadership program has been available for school administrators and prospective school administrators. A 1982 survey indicated that less than 20% of existing school administrators had taken, as either a pre or inservice activity, any formal education in administration. Generally, the delivery of pre and inservice work in Manitoba could be characterized by the issues mentioned earlier in this paper: universities as prime source of preservice, universities under some criticism for the nature of their programs for preservice, little link between university coursework and ongoing inservice, no deliberately planned or co-ordinated policy for the preparation or professional development of administrators. With some minor differences, I think it would be fair to say that most other provinces in Canada are not much different. Consequently, the absence of a policy in this area, combined with competition for jobs as administrators has allowed an informal selection process to assume the determining of requirements for school administration. As is the formally established practice in much of US., it is starting to become the expectancy that an M.Ed. in Education Administration be seen as the desired credential to become a school administrator. As has been suggested in this paper, university coursework has a very important role to play in, for instance, the cognitive maturity of administrators. It does not have much of a role in the provisions of the operational maintenance skills required for initial survival on the job.

Essentially then, what has happened is that in the absence of other formal programs university credentials have become the proxy for pre-service training programs for school administrators. This is not a purpose for which they were designed. An attempt has been made in Manitoba to rectify this situation by the development of a two level Principals' certificate. Although the certificate doesn't outline specific skills required for school administration, largely based upon the framework presented in this paper it does assign the provision of certain skill levels and areas to different sources.

The substance of this certificate is presented in Figure 2. The first level of the certificate requires that the candidate attend a 60 hour course (or equivalent) on the technical-operational maintenance skill area. This course is now in development and will be run by the Department of Education in conjunction with the principals' professional association. It is noteworthy that the certificate requirements for the first level (entry level) administrators' certificate specifically excludes university credit coursework, specifying that this 60 hours must be local "operating agency" offered. This is an attempt to readdress the role reversal discussed earlier and is a unique feature of the certificate.

The second level of the certificate can only be attained after two years successful experience as a school administrator and requires that the administrator engage in additional professional development programs that must include a minimum number of university based courses in educational administration. This is based on the assumption that university programs have as their focus the development of conceptual-analytic skills, best enhanced after experience on the job and after "survival" is no longer a concern.

FIGURE 2
EXAMPLES OF INDIVIDUAL REQUIREMENTS FOR MANITOBA
LEVEL I & II PRINCIPAL CERTIFICATES

INDIVIDUAL QUALIFICATIONS	LEVEL I REQUIREMENTS	LEVEL II REQUIREMENTS
1. B.Ed.—no post degree courses in Ed. Admin. — no admin. experience	(a) 60 hours of prof. devel. activity (not university course) in areas of school & program operational maintenance PLUS 2 graduate courses in educational administration	(a) 2 years administrative experience PLUS 180 hours of which at least 100 hours graduate coursework in Ed. Admin. (3 courses)
2. B.Ed.—no post degree courses in Ed. Admin. —minimum 2 years admin. experience as principal or vice principal	Automatically Given Level I	300 contact hours of study in a combination of p.d. and formal study of which at least 180 (5 courses) must be formal graduate courses in Ed. Admin.
3. Pre-Masters or Masters in Ed. Admin. — no admin. experience	60 hours of p.d. activity (not university) in the areas of school and program operational maintenance.	2 years experience Note: additional grad. course—work in Ed. Admin. may be required to bring total required grad courses in Ed. Admin. to 5.
4. Pre-Masters or Masters in Ed. Admin. and 2 years admin. experience	Automatically Given Level I	Automatically Given Level II—it has 5 graduate level courses (180 contact hours) in Ed. Admin.

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Also noteworthy is the assumption that future levels may be "added" to the certificate. That is, it is the intention of the designers of this certificate that over time a level 3, 4, 5 and so on could be available for a prescribed amount of professional development activity. This, of course, is an attempt to address directly the concern for a lifelong learning concept in the profession.

Essentially, the Manitoba approach was designed to take into account (1) the hierarchy and sources of skills as suggested in the framework, (2) the existing skill level of administrators in Manitoba, (3) the existing formal training level of administrators in Manitoba, and (4) the available sources of skills, (5) the avoidance of the undesirable characteristics or trends in the preparation and professional development of school administrators. The certificate has only been put in place for the fall of 1985 so it remains to be seen if it will be successful in "developing" school administrators in Manitoba.

THE CARIBBEAN

This author's knowledge of the Caribbean is limited to experience working and consulting there and to documents like those prepared for and from sessions like the 1978 Commonwealth Secretariat training session in Barbados and the 1982 Jamaica workshop. However, I think it would be reasonable to observe that despite the assistance of several aid agencies and sporadic initiatives on several islands there is as of yet no co-ordinated or long term policy for the pre-service or inservice of school level administrators. This situation prompted, of course, the deliberations at the 1983 Jamaica workshop. In addition to the general pre and inservice problems we have in Canada, planners in the Caribbean are faced with a few unique problems. I would like to briefly discuss two of these special problem areas.

First, there is the obvious difficulty in co-ordinating a training activity for such a diverse and geographically distant area such as the Caribbean. The best brains of the Caribbean financial and political world have only barely been able to hold Caricom together. I'm not sure that one Caricom program for school administrators would survive any better. There are, for instance, considerable differences between both the existing training levels and the availability of local training resources for the three larger Islands of Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and other smaller Leeward Islands. A suggestion here would be that, as much as possible, preservice training and ongoing inservice efforts be as local as possible. Localized initiated and planned programs have the advantage of maximizing accessibility to such programs by local personnel and minimizing the resource expenditures and disruption time for the system. Even the smallest of the Leeward Islands has the local expertise to provide, at the very least, the preservice or upgrading training to what has been described in the paper as the "survival" level. Other agencies, especially the U.W.I., have indicated willingness and ability to assist in the delivery of additional programs off campus and in the small island location. This does not mean, of course, that regional efforts are not of significant value, only that such efforts are not

likely to be able to address the situational specifics inherent in the technical or operational maintenance end of the skill continuum suggested in this paper. Consequently, if the urgent need is to have competently trained school-level administrators, the locally developed program may be more suitable. The situation would be different, however, for district level administrators where, on most Islands, numbers warrant the necessity of some regional activity.

Second, is the fact that many developing areas, including the Caribbean rely heavily upon outside foreign agencies for the provision of programs for school administrators. In the past five years, programs have been offered/sponsored by U.S., A.I.D., C.I.D.A., O.C.O.D., British O.D.A., Commonwealth Secretariat and perhaps other smaller groups. I happen to know, for instance, that a small private outfit in Manitoba is presently discussing the offering of training programs for school administrators on one of the smaller Islands. The reason for the proliferation of assistance is partly due to the geographical issue previously discussed. The Islands are, in fact, separate nations and are free to pursue their own sources of training. Such assistance also brings with it needed resources. However, the intervention by these development agencies fills another void: the general lack of a Caribbean data base about school administrators upon which to build a professional preparation or development program. When a Canadian group such as O.C.O.D. comes to the Caribbean, it brings with it, free of charge, a three week inservice program for school administrators that is based upon the realities of school administration in Canada. At issue becomes the utility or applicability to developing areas of North American skills and knowledge in the technical-operation, human relations and conceptual analytic areas.[27]

Regarding technical skills and knowledge, in First World areas there seems to be some consensus that roles and tasks are largely determined by the organizational content in which they work. In the Commonwealth Third World this context is affected by, among other things, (i) an educational system that is a legacy of British colonialism, (ii) an educational environment that is highly centralized, (iii) a large proportion of teachers untrained, (iv) the need to examine the relationship between education and national development. Although some research in administration (public) in developing areas indicates that skills at the technical level are most easily transferred from the developed to developing areas,[28] institutional and environmental factors could temper the utility of these skills in the Third World context.

There is no need to make a special case for the development of higher order human relation skills in Third World school administrators. At issue for the planning of training programs for educational administrators in developing areas is the cross-national validity of research and theory on the organizational behaviour of individuals in public, educational and business organizations. Although there is little research on the specific

topic of educational administration across cultures, there is a considerable amount of research in both the area of public administration in developing areas and organizational behavior/theory across cultures. One example is Hofsteade[29] who (among other things) researched the cross-cultural validity of the popular motivation theories such as those of McClelland, Maslov, Herzberg and Vroom. He concluded that there is considerable doubt about their ability in different (from North America) cultural settings. This, and other similar research, throws into question the utility of North American knowledge and skills in the human relations area for educational administration.

Skills and knowledge in the conceptual analytic area are by their nature, the most difficult to define. There is little argument, however, for the belief that higher order conceptual and human relation skills are necessary for maximizing the effectiveness of school administrators be they in a developed or developing area. However, professional preparation or development efforts directed at this level centre around the body of theoretical knowledge related to the study and practice of educational administration. It is in this "skill area," more than the other two, that issues related to (i) theory in educational administration (developed areas), (ii) theories of development, and (iii) theories of organizational functioning across cultures throw doubt upon the utility of skill or knowledge "transfer." The appropriate developed world-developing world relationship regarding the development of higher order conceptual skills and knowledge should not be a superior-subordinate one, but a dialectic one. As Wiggins[30] suggested, it is necessary to "... replace the mentality of the assistance/intervention model with the transactional/interactive model."

The available evidence regarding the transferability of skills and knowledge in the three skill areas outlined in this paper suggests to planners of "localized" pre and inservice activities that they begin their planning by profiling the job of school administration in their context. In terms of the skill hierarchy/continuum suggested in this paper, this means, in the first instance, determining at the very least the technical/operational skills required for survival as administrators in their context. At a different level it could require the examination of the cross cultural validity of North American based models of cognitive development.[31]

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As suggested in the introduction to this paper, the issues on the professional preparation and development of school administrators are complex and have yet to be totally resolved in any national setting. The special case of educational administration in developing areas like the Caribbean gives rise to a number of general conclusions that might assist the planning and delivery of professional preparation and development programs for school administrators.

Firstly, the Specialist Professional Model is a desirable goal for the training of school administrators, but the appropriateness of this model is contingent upon the development of indigenous content and delivery mechanisms. The implications here are that, as Kiggunda et al concluded, the process in North America may be appropriate but the content is not.[29] However, even the North American "process" may be somewhat unsuitable in as much as University based programs appear to be the basis of "specialist"

training and, as has been suggested in this paper, university credit-based preservice programs may not be suitable.

A second conclusion, then, is that it is with great caution that the North American experience in the professional preparation and development of school administrators be used as a guide or model for Caribbean planners. North American models have been developed endogenously through several decades of trial and error. To import these models results in the shaping of training programs by forces exogenous to the "unique social fabric" of the Caribbean.[30] University programs in educational administration offered in the Caribbean should be especially cautious of the use of North American theories and models of school administration.

Thirdly, despite the previous two conclusions, the experiences and models in, for instance, Canada can be of great assistance to planners in the Caribbean. In many instances although the content may be inappropriate, some aspects of the delivery systems might be worthy of consideration by third world planners. In Manitoba, Canada, for example a school administrators' certificate programme has been developed based upon the rationale and model presented in this paper. In addition, at the university level, planners of training programs for educational planners in the third world might benefit considerably by a close look at the present location of the university in North America in the training schemata of such personnel. In comparative sense, the differences in program emphasis between, say, the U.S. and Canada (and Great Britain) might provide working examples for emulation for rejection.

As a final and more general conclusion regarding the planning of training programs for school administrators in the Caribbean, it should be pointed out that there is no quick formula for the development of such programs. Canada has been moving towards the specialist professional model for several decades and is still a long way from an ideal state in this regard. Planners of such training programs in the Caribbean must realize that although they can learn much from the experiences in the "developed" world (if only what <u>not</u> to do!) it is more important that the delivery models of such programs be indigenously developed and that attempts should not be made, at either the preservice or inservice level, to uncritically import models from North America or elsewhere.

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